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THE
ESSENTIAL USES OF THE MOODS
IN GREEK AND LATIN

SET FORTH IN
PARALLEL ARRANGEMENT

BY ROBERT P. KEEP.

REVISED EDITION.

Εὐμνημόνευτα ὅσα τάξιν τινὰ ἔχει.

ARISTOTLE, περὶ μνήμης.

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PREFACE.

THIS pamphlet was first issued in 1879. A second edition was called for in 1882. From that time there was an unabated demand for the book until 1889, when a part of the plates were melted in a fire. Various causes delayed the preparation of a new edition until last summer, when the author was so fortunate as to secure the aid of Professor J. C. Rolfe of Michigan University, to whom the modifications and improvements in the pamphlet are almost wholly due. Among the additions may be mentioned full references to the Latin and Greek grammars in general use. It is hoped that the pamphlet may by this means be brought into closer relation to the pupil's grammars, and that he may be led to refer more frequently to the grammar for fuller treatment of essential principles.

ROBERT PORTER KEEP.

NORWICH FREE ACADEMY, Norwich, Conn.,
February, 1891.

CLASSIFICATION

A.
INDEPENDENT
SENTENCES.
These of three
kinds :

.

B.
DEPENDENT
SENTENCES.
These of three
kinds :

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES, *i.e.* those
which stand as the subject or
object of some verb, include
clauses of:

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES, *i.e.* those
which modify the principal
verb like an adverb, are of six
kinds :

OF SENTENCES.

{	I. STATEMENT. (Declarative Sentence.)	{	1. Positive Assertion.
	2. Qualified Assertion.		
	II. QUESTION. (Interrogative Sentence.)		{
2. Deliberative or Dubitative Question.			
{	III. COMMAND. (Imperative Sentence.)	{	1. Command.
	2. Exhortation.		
3. Wish.			
{	I. INDIRECT STATEMENT.	{	These include all varieties of Indirect Quotation, or <i>Oratio Obliqua</i> .
	II. INDIRECT QUESTION.		
	III. INDIRECT REQUEST.		
. . . RELATIVE CLAUSES.			
{	I. FINAL.	{	Very frequently in Greek, and less commonly in Latin, a participle may be the equiv- alent of a relative clause, or of an adverbial clause in any of its varieties.
	II. CONSECUTIVE.		
	III. CAUSAL.		
	IV. CONDITIONAL.		
	V. CONCESSIVE.		
	VI. TEMPORAL.		

SYNTAX OF

A.—USES OF MOODS IN

LATIN.

1.
Direct
Statement.
A. 264.
H. 474.
G. 246.

1. Direct statement is made by the indicative.

Homō vēnit.

The man came.

Subjunctive of
Modesty.
A. 311. b.
H. 486. x.
G. 250.

2. Qualified or modest assertion is made by the subjunctive.

Tū velim sic existimēs.

I should like to have you to think so.

Vellem adesset Antōnius.

I could wish Antony were here.

Pāce tuā dixerim.

I would say by your leave.

Potential
Subjunctive.
A. 311. a.
H. 485.
G. 250.

The subjunctive is used to denote an action not as real, but as possible.

Quaerat quispiam.

Some one may ask.

THE MOODS.

INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

G R E E K.

1.

Direct Statement.

G. 213. 1.
H. 865.

G. 257.
H. 1032.
G. M. 294. 6.

1. Direct statement is made by the indicative.

ὁ ἀνὴρ ἦλθεν.

The man came.

REM. — Emphatic denial is made by the aorist subjunctive, or rarely by the future indicative, preceded by οὐ μὲν.

οὐ μὴ παύσωμαι.

I shall never cease.

οὐ σοι μὴ μεθέξομαί ποτε.

I will not follow you.

2. Qualified or modest assertion is made by the optative with ἄν; negative, οὐ.

βουλοίμην ἄν.

I should wish.

οὐκ ἂν ἔλθοι.

He would not come.

Potential Optative.

G. 226. 2. b.
H. 872.

LATIN.

2

**Direct
Question.**
A. 210, a. b.
H. 351. 1.
G. 455 fol.

REM. — The subjunctive of modesty and the potential subjunctive are really forms of apodosis (see 18). The protasis may sometimes be supplied, but was often not present to the mind of the speaker.

1. Questions, single or double, are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, or, rarely, are indicated only by the mark of interrogation (?), and are expressed by the indicative.

Quid vīs?

What do you want?

Ubinam habitās?

Where do you live?

Quaerō servōsne an liberōs.

I ask whether slaves or free.

A. 210. c.
H. 351. 1.
Notes 1. 2.
and 3.
G. 456-8.

REM. 1. — **Ne** (enclitic), appended to the emphatic word, merely asks for information; **nōne** expects the answer *yes*; **num** expects the answer *no*.

A. 211. a. b.
H. 353. 1. 2.
Notes 3 and
4.
G. 460.

REM. 2. — In double questions **utrum** or **-ne**, *whether*, stands in the first member; **an**, **anne**, *or*, **annōn**, **necne**, *or not*, in the second. Of the two last, **annōn** is more common in direct questions, **necne** in indirect. The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member, and sometimes the first member itself is omitted or implied.

**Doubtful
Question.**
A. 268.
H. 484. V.
G. 468.

2. In questions implying doubt as to the possibility or propriety of an action (dubitative or deliberative questions), the subjunctive is used, in all tenses.

Quid faciā?

What am I to do?

REM. — The potential optative is really the apodosis of a less vivid future condition. The protasis may sometimes be supplied, but was often not present to the mind of the speaker.

2

Direct
Question.
G. 282. 1.
H. 1015. 2.

1. Questions, single or double, are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, or are indicated by the mark of interrogation (;), and are expressed by the indicative.

τί θέλεις;

What do you want?

ποῦ οἰκεῖς;

Where do you live?

ἦλθες;

Did you come?

πότερον ἐᾷς ἄρχειν ἢ ἄλλον καθίστης;

Do you allow him to rule or do you appoint another?

G. 282. 2.
H. 1015.

REM. 1. — Common interrogative particles are: ἄρα and ἤ, which ask for information; ἄρα οὐ, οὐ, οὐκουν, ἄλλο τι (ἤ), πῶς οὐ, which expect the answer *yes*; ἄρα μή, μή, which, in a question, expect the answer *no*.

G. 282. 3.
H. 1017.

REM. 2. — Double questions, both direct and indirect, may be introduced by πότερον (πότερα) . . . ἤ. Indirect double questions may also be introduced by εἰ . . . ἤ, εἴτε . . . εἴτε, or εἴτε . . . ἤ.

Doubtful
Question.
G. 256.
H. 866. 3.

2. In questions implying doubt as to the possibility or propriety of an action (dubitative or deliberative questions), the first, sometimes the third, person of the subjunctive is used; negative, μή.

τί ποιήσω;

What am I to do?

LATIN.

Quid dē eō homine dicam?

What am I to say concerning that man?

Quid facerem?

What was I to do?

3.

**Direct
Command.**

A. 269.
H. 487.
G. 259.

1. Command is expressed by the imperative mood.

Curre, currite.

Run.

Fac hōc.

Do this.

NOTE.—The second and third persons of the present subjunctive are frequently used to express command; the former, however, only when a command is addressed to an indefinite person.

A. 266, and s.
H. 484, iv, with
note 2.
G. 256. 2. 3.

Doceās iter.

Show us the way.

Hōc faciat.

Let him do this.

REM.—Prohibition, or negative command, addressed to a definite person, is expressed in three ways:—

A. 266, b.
H. 484, iv,
note 1.
G. 266.

(a) by **nē** with the perfect subjunctive.

Nē hōc fēceris.

Do not do this.

A. 269, a.
H. 489.
G. 264, II.

(b) by **nōli** or **nōlite** with the infinitive.

Nōli hōc facere, nōlite hōc facere.

(c) by **cave** or **cavēte** with the present or perfect subjunctive, with or without **nē**.

Cave nē hōc faciās.

(5)

τί εἶπω περὶ ἐκείνου τοῦ ἀνδρός ;

What am I to say concerning that man?

NOTE. — The subjunctive of doubt is frequently joined with βούλει, θέλεις, κ. τ. λ.

βούλει	}	ἀπίωμεν ;
βούλεσθε		
θέλεις		
θέλετε		

Do you wish that we should go away?

3.

Direct
Command.
G. 252.
H. 873.

1. Command is expressed by the imperative mood : by the present imperative, if the command is general ; by the aorist imperative, if it is particular.

σπούδαζε.

Be diligent (always).

ποίησον τοῦτο.

Do this (particular thing).

φεύγε.

Begone !

REM. — Prohibition, or negative command, is expressed by μή with the present imperative, if the prohibition is general ; by μή with the second (rarely third) singular or plural aorist subjunctive, if the prohibition is particular.

μὴ κλέπτει.

Do not steal (habitually), or, Do not be a thief.

μὴ κλέψῃς.

Do not steal (some particular thing).

G. 254.
H. 874, and a.

LATIN.

NOTE. — The Present Imperative in negative commands occurs only in early Latin and in poetry. General prohibitions (*i.e.* prohibitions addressed to no definite person) are regularly expressed by the present subjunctive with **nē**.

Exhortation.

A. 266.
H. 483.
G. 256.

2. Exhortation is expressed by the subjunctive ; negative **nē**.

Eāmus.

Let us go.

Nē hōc faciant.

Let them not do this.

Wish.

A. 267, with b.
H. 483. 1 and 2.
G. 253, 254.

3. The subjunctive is used to express a wish. If attainable, the wish is expressed by the present ; if unaccomplished in present time, by the imperfect ; if unaccomplished in past time, by the pluperfect ; negative regularly, **nē**. The subjunctive is often preceded by the particles **utī** (*ut*), **utinam**, or **ō sī**.

His Dī grātiām referant !

These may the Gods requite !

Utinam tum tibi nē adfuissem !

Would that I had not then been present !

Utinam Cȳrus viveret !

Would that Cyrus were alive !

REM. — The perfect subjunctive in a wish occurs only in early Latin.

Exhortation.
G. 253.
H. 866. 1.

2. Exhortation is expressed by the first plural of the subjunctive ; negative μή.

ἴωμεν.

Let us go.

μὴ τοῦτο ποιῶμεν.

Let us not do this.

Wish.
G. 251. 1 and 2.
H. 870, and 2.
871, and 2.

3. Wish, conceived as attainable, is expressed by the optative, with or without εἴθε or εἰ γάρ ; negative μή ; as unattainable, by the past tenses of the indicative with εἴθε or εἰ γάρ, or by the aorist ὄφελον with an infinitive.

τούτους μὲν οἱ θεοὶ ἀποτίσαντο.

These may the Gods requite !

εἴθε σοι τότε μὴ συνεγενόμην.

Would that I had not then been present !

εἰ γὰρ τοσαύτην δύναμιν εἶχον.

O that I had so great power !

*Ὦφελε Κῦρος ζῆν.

Would that Cyrus were alive !

B.—USES OF MOODS IN

L A T I N .

4.

Classification of Tenses.

A. 285.
G. 510.
A. 287 a. and c.
H. 495. I. and II.
G. 511. with Rem.

Tenses are classed as Primary and Secondary. Primary: *present, future, and future perfect*. Secondary: *imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect*.

REM. 1. The perfect is ordinarily a secondary tense, but allows the primary sequence when the present time is clearly in the writer's mind. The historical present allows either sequence, but is usually followed by secondary tenses.

REM. 2. Instead of Primary and Secondary, the terms Principal and Historical, or Present and Past, are sometimes used.

The Latin observes sequence of *tense*; that is, the tense of the subordinate clause corresponds to that of the principal sentence.

5.

Sequence of Tenses.

A. 286.
H. 491.
G. 510.

Primary tenses regularly follow primary; secondary tenses regularly follow secondary.

Dā mihi illum librum ut accipiam.

Give me that book that I may take it.

Illum librum mihi dedit ut acciperem.

He gave me that book that I might take it.

REM.—The law of the "Sequence of Tenses," as here stated, is not invariable. Many so-called exceptions occur. After a secondary tense the perfect is often found in clauses of result. The imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive in conditions contrary to fact are not affected by the rule.

DEPENDENT SENTENCES.

GREEK.

4.
Classification of
Tenses.
G. 90, 2.
H. 301.

Tenses are classed as Primary and Secondary. Primary: *present, perfect, future, and future perfect*. Secondary: *imperfect, aorist, and pluperfect*.

In Greek, the sequence is rather of mood than of tense; *i.e.* the *mood* of the dependent clause is often influenced by the tense of the principal verb. This principle holds good only in certain cases hereafter described, especially in final clauses (15), and may be stated as follows: —

5.
Sequence of
Moods.
G. 201.

The subjunctive is the regular attendant of primary tenses; the optative (hence called also historical subjunctive), of secondary tenses.

δός μοι ἐκεῖνο τὸ βιβλίον ἵνα λάβω.

Give me that book that I may take it.

ἔδωκέ μοι ἐκεῖνο τὸ βιβλίον ἵνα λάβοιμι.

He gave me that book that I might take it.

REM. — The use of the optative after secondary tenses is in all cases optional. The subjunctive may always be retained for vividness.

L A T I N .

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

6.

Classification of Substantive Clauses.

Substantive clauses, or clauses which are the subject or the object of some verb, are classified as follows : —

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| I. Indirect Statement. | } Here are included
all forms of Indirect
Quotation, or <i>Oratio</i>
<i>Obliqua</i> . |
| II. Indirect Question. | |
| III. Indirect Request. | |

REM. 1. — The term Indirect Discourse, *Oratio Obliqua*, is applied to what is reported, but not formally quoted, as the saying or as the thought of a person. It is what in direct discourse would be in the form of a declaration, or a question, or a command or request; but in indirect discourse takes the form of a subordinate clause.

REM. 2. — Substantive clauses have been defined as clauses which (like a substantive) are the subject or object of certain verbs. They are, properly, object-clauses when the leading verb is in the active voice; yet they may follow certain verbs and expressions which are not strictly transitive, *i.e.* which do not take after them a noun in the objective case.

REM. 3. — When the leading verb is in the passive voice, the substantive clause will regularly become its subject.

7.

Indirect Statement; how expressed.
A. 336. 2.
H. 523. I.
G. 509. 2.

1. The regular form of the indirect statement, after verbs of *feeling*, *thinking*, and *declaring*, is the accusative with the infinitive.

Dixit Xenophōntem imperātōrem esse.

He said that Xenophon was general.

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

6.
Classifica-
tion of Sub-
stantive
Clauses.

Substantive clauses, or clauses which are the subject or the object of some verb, are classified as follows : —

- | | |
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Quotation, or Oratio
Obliqua. |
| II. Indirect Question. | |
| III. Indirect Request. | |

REM. 1. — The term Indirect Discourse, *Oratio Obliqua*, is applied to what is reported, but not formally quoted, as the saying or as the thought of a person. It is what in direct discourse would be in the form of a declaration, or a question, or a command or request; but in indirect discourse takes the form of a subordinate clause.

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REM. 3. — When the leading verb is in the passive voice, the substantive clause will regularly become its subject.

7.
Indirect
Statement:
how ex-
pressed.
G. 247. 2.
H. 946.

1. A regular form of the indirect statement, after verbs of *feeling, thinking, and declaring*, is the accusative with the infinitive; but the nominative usually takes the place of the accusative when the latter would repeat the subject of the principal verb.

ἔφη Ξενοφῶντα στρατηγὸν εἶναι.

He said that Xenophon was general.

Ξενοφῶν ἔφη αὐτὸς στρατηγὸς εἶναι.

Xenophon said that he himself was general.

A. 330. f.
G. 424. Rem. 3.

REM. — Verbs of *hoping, promising, and undertaking* regularly take the future infinitive with the subject-accusative, but sometimes the present.

Promisit sē ventūrum esse.

He promised that he would come.

Pollicentur obsidēs dare (Caes. B. G. iv. 21).

They promise to give hostages.

A. 332. a. 2.
H. 501. I. 1.
G. 558. 3.

2. After impersonal verbs such as *it happens, it is expedient, it remains, it follows* (e.g. **accidit, fieri solet, expedit, restat, sequitur**, etc.), the substantive clause takes the form of **ut** with the subjunctive.

Expedit ut Rōmae sim.

It is expedient that I be at Rome.

GREEK.

NOTE.—By the use of the nominative or accusative, the Greek regularly indicates whether the subject of the infinitive is the same as that of the principal verb, or not.

ἔφη αὐτός, οὐκ ἐκείνον, στρατηγεῖν.

He said that he himself, not that man, was commander.

G. 203. Note 2.
H. 948. a.

REM.—Verbs of *promising, hoping, expecting*, etc., take either the future infinitive or the present and aorist.

ὑπέσχετό μοι τοῦτο ποιήσειν.

He promised me that he would do this.

ἃ οὐποτε ἤλπισεν παθεῖν.

What he never expected to suffer.

G. 241. a.
H. 932.

2. Equally common in Greek with the accusative with infinitive after verbs of *saying, thinking*, etc., is the substantive clause introduced by ὅτι or ὥς. The verb of the substantive clause is in the indicative after a primary tense; in the optative (generally) after a secondary tense.

οἶδα ὅτι βασιλεὺς ἀπέθανεν.

I know that the king died.

ᾔδew ὅτι βασιλεὺς μαχόμενος ἀποθάνοι
(ἀπέθανεν).

I knew that the king died fighting.

G. 242. b.
H. 933.

REM. 1.—The indicative may at any time be employed after a secondary tense when it is desired, for the sake of vividness, to approach the original language of the speaker.

G. 260. a.
Note 1.
H. 946. b.

REM. 2.—Of the three common verbs of *saying*, φημί regularly takes the infinitive; λέγω may take ὅτι or ὥς; εἶπον always takes ὅτι or ὥς, except when it signifies *did*.

LATIN.

A. 332. 1.
H. 501. 1. r.
G. 535. Rema.
1 and 2.

3. The impersonals **licet** and **oportet** take as subject either a substantive clause in the subjunctive, with or without **ut**, or an infinitive with or without a subject accusative.

Licet mē ire.

It is allowed me to go.

Sint enim oportet.

They must exist.

REM. 1. — **ut** is regularly omitted with **oportet**.

REM. 2. — Clauses in the subjunctive after the verbs mentioned in 2 and 3 are often called substantive clauses of purpose or result.

A. 333.
H. 540. 4.
G. 542.

4. A peculiar form of substantive clause consists of **quod** causal with the indicative.

After verbs of emotion, **gaudeō**, **doleō**, etc., the substantive clause often takes this form, although the accusative with the infinitive may be used.

Gaudeō quod domum tūtus rediit.

I am glad that he has returned home safe.

A. 333. a.
H. 516. II. 2.
Note.
G. 525.

REM. — In colloquial language the substantive clause with **quod** is sometimes used as an accusative of specification, corresponding to the English *whereas*.

Reperiēbat etiam in quaerendō Caesar quod proelium equestre adversum paucis ante diēbus esset factum.

Cæsar found out, on inquiry, about the unsuccessful cavalry skirmish of a few days before (lit. as to the fact that an unsuccessful cavalry skirmish had taken place a few days before).

G. 134. Note 2.
H. 949.

3. The impersonal expressions δοκῆ, *it seems good*, δεῖ, *it is necessary*, ἔστι, *it is possible*, ἔξεστι, *it is permitted*, etc., take an infinitive clause as subject.

ἔξεστὶ μοι ἵέναι.

It is allowed me to go.

G. 279. 2.
H. 982.

4. Verbs of *feeling, knowing, judging*, — e.g. αἰσθάνομαι, οἶδα, μέμνημαι, — are more commonly followed by a participle than by the accusative with the infinitive. This participle is called a supplementary participle.

οἶδά σε κακὸν ὄντα.

I know that you are cowardly.

οἶδα κακὸς ὢν.

I know that I am cowardly.

REM. — With the infinitive the meaning is different.

οἶδα κακὸς εἶναι.

I know how to be a coward.

8.
Use of Moods
in Indirect
Statement.
 (Subordinate
 Clauses.)
 A. 336. 2.
 H. 524.
 G. 653.

General Principle governing the Use of Moods in Clauses of Secondary Dependence in Indirect Discourse.

Clauses that are dependent on a proposition in Indirect Discourse employ the subjunctive.

REM. — The dependent clauses, the verbs of which thus pass into the subjunctive, may be of the following varieties: —

1. Interrogative clauses (cf. Rule 9), — yet rhetorical questions may employ the infinitive.
2. Imperative clauses.
3. Relative clauses, whether introduced by relatives or relative adverbs.
4. Adverbial clauses in their different varieties (cf. Rule 13).

DIRECT STATEMENT.

Ego parātus sum: —

quid *vultis*? Nē *dubitāte* apertē dicere ea quae in animō *habētis*.

Sī *pācem* populus Rōmānus cum Helvētiis *faciet*, in eam partem *ibunt* atque ibi *erunt* Helvētiī, ubi eos Caesar *constituerit* atque esse *voluerit*: sī bellō *persequi perseverabit, reminiscere* (inquit) et veteris incommodi populi Rōmāni et pristinae virtutis Helvētiōrum.

INDIRECT STATEMENT.

[Dicit] sē parātum esse: —

quid *velint* (1)? ne *dubitent* (2) apertē dicere ea quae in animō *habeant* (3).

[Dixit] sī *pācem* populus Rōmānus cum Helvētiis *faceret* (4) in eam partem *itūrōs* atque ibi *futūrōs* Helvētiōs, ubi eos Caesar *constituisset* (3) atque esse *voluisset* (3): sī bellō *persequi perseverāret* (4) *reminisceretur* (2) et veteris incommodi populi Rōmāni et pristinae virtutis Helvētiōrum.

REM. — The imperative clauses, although they stand for independent clauses in direct discourse, are really dependent on the verb of saying, and follow the rule of the sequence of tenses.

NOTE. — The subjunctive of direct statement, modified in tense according to Rule 5, is retained in indirect statement except in the apodosis of conditional sentences, where it becomes future infinitive.

8.

Employment
of Mood in
Indirect
Statement
(after ὅτι
or ὥς).
G. 243.
H. 93a.

*General Principle governing the Employment of Mood in
Indirect Statement after ὅτι or ὥς.*

When the tense of the principal verb (*verbum sentiendī vel dēclārandī*) is secondary, the mood of all the finite verbs in the clauses immediately or remotely depending upon it is usually changed (in passing from direct to indirect statement) to the optative.

Direct Statement.

ἐὰν ὑμᾶς ἴδω ἀθύρους, κακὸς ἔσομαι.

If I see you faint-hearted I shall be cowardly.

Indirect Statement.

ἔλεξεν ὅτι, εἰ ἡμᾶς ἴδοι ἀθύρους, κακὸς ἔσοιτο.

He said that, if he should see us faint-hearted, he should be cowardly.

REM. 1.—The tense of the verb of the dependent clauses suffers no change.

G. 243. Note 1.
H. 935.

EXC.—The uniform exception to the above rule is in the case of conditional sentences of the second form, contrary to reality (cf. Rule 21), where the indicatives never change to optatives.

Direct Statement.

εἰ μὴ ὑμεῖς ἦλθετε, ἐπορευόμεθα ἄν.

If you had not come, we should be marching.

Indirect Statement.

ἀπήγγειλεν ὅτι εἰ μὴ ὑμεῖς ἦλθετε, ἐπορευόμεθα ἄν.

He announced that, if you had not come, we should be marching.

H. 923.

REM.—By what may be called the "principle of vividness," it is common, in Greek, to employ the original language of the speaker where we should expect the optative of indirect statement.

ἠπόρουν τί λέγει (instead of λέγοι).

I was at a loss to know what he meant.

9.

Mood in
Indirect
Question.

A. 334.
H. 529. 2.
G. 469.

Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns and particles. The verb of the interrogative clause is regularly in the subjunctive.

Quaeram quis sit.

I will ask who he is.

Quaesivi quis esset.

I asked who he was.

REM. 1.—The subjunctive is generally explained on the same principle as the subjunctive of indirect statement, but in indirect dubitative questions the subjunctive is, of course, original.

A. 334. d.
H. 529. 7.
G. 469.
Rem. 1.

REM. 2.—The indicative in indirect questions occurs only in early Latin and in poetry.

9.

Mood in
Indirect
Question.
G. 241. 3.
H 930.

Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns and particles. After a primary tense, the verb of the interrogative clause suffers no change; after a secondary tense, it passes regularly into the optative.

ἔρωτήσω ὅστις ἐστίν.

I will ask who he is.

ἠρόμην ὅστις εἶη.

I asked who he was.

REM. 1.—The optative is explained on the same principle as the optative of indirect statement. By the "principle of vividness" the original language of the speaker may be employed in the indirect question, after a secondary tense.

REM. 2.—The indirect interrogatives are commonly employed in Greek, in the indirect question, instead of the direct interrogatives: *e.g.* *ὅπου, ὅπουθεν, ὅπου, ὅπη, ὅποτε, ὅπως, ὅστις, ὅπόσος, ὅπολος, ὅποτερος*, instead of *ποῦ, πόθεν, ποῦ, πῇ, πότε, πῶς, τίς, πόσος, πόλος, πότερος*.

REM. 3.—The subjunctive is *not* an attendant of the indirect question, in Greek; where we find it, it is the deliberative or dubitative subjunctive. *e.g.*—

οὐκ οἶδα πῶς ἀποδρῶ.

I don't know how I am to escape.

The direct question was,—

πῶς ἀποδρῶ;

How am I to escape?

which, after a secondary tense, by the principle of indirect discourse, would pass into the optative,—

οὐκ ᾔδειν πῶς ἀποδραίην,

or, by the "principle of vividness," might remain unchanged:—

οὐκ ᾔδειν πῶς ἀποδρῶ.

I did not know how I should escape.

LATIN.

10.
Indirect
Request.

When a command or request is made to depend upon a verb of requesting, advising, or reminding, it becomes an indirect request.

Mood in
Indirect
Request.

1. Indirect request, after verbs of requesting, advising, and reminding, is regularly expressed by the subjunctive (object-clause) with **ut** or **nē**.

Tē rogat ut hōc faciās.

He asks you to do this.

Tē rogāvit ut hōc facerēs.

He asked you to do this.

Suādeō (vōbīs) ut vōsmet servētis.

I advise you to save yourselves.

A. 331. 2.
H. 535. II.
G. 531. 1 and 2.

REM. 1. — **Iubeō**, **vetō**, and often **cōgō**, **sinō**, and **volō**, are followed by the infinitive.

A. 331.
H. 498.
G. 546.

REM. 2. — The clauses above described (Rule 10, 1) are sometimes called substantive clauses of purpose, and treated under the head of final clauses (cf. Rule 14, 1).

A. 331. f.
H. 498. III.
G. 552.

2. After verbs of fear or caution, the object of apprehension is expressed by **nē** with the subjunctive, when it is feared something will happen; by **ut** or **nē nōn**, when it is feared that something will not happen.

Vereor nē hōc faciās.

I fear that you will do this.

Verēbar ut (nē nōn) hōc facerēs.

I feared that you would not do this.

REM. 1. — This subjunctive after verbs of fearing is hortatory or optative. The force of the construction is best understood by resolving the sentence into the two independent sentences out of which it grew. Expressed in this way, **Vereor; nē hōc faciās** means *I fear; may*

10.

Indirect
Request.

Mood in
Indirect
Request.
G. 260. 1.
H. 248.

When a command or a request is made to depend upon a verb of requesting, advising, reminding, it becomes an indirect request.

1. Indirect request, after verbs of requesting, advising, and reminding, is regularly expressed, as in English, by the infinitive.

σοῦ δέομαι ταῦτα ποιεῖν.

I beg you to do this.

σοῦ ἐδεήθην ταῦτα ποιεῖν.

I begged you to do this.

συμβουλεύω ὑμῖν σώζεσθαι.

I advise you to save yourselves.

REM. 1. — Instead of the infinitive, the Greek employs *ὅπως*, with the future indicative, after verbs denoting attention, care, effort.

σκέψασθε ὅπως ἄνδρες ἔσεσθε.

See to it that you be men.

REM. 2. — In the later Greek (*e.g.* of the New Testament), the clause with *ὥστε* and the subjunctive frequently takes the place of the infinitive. This may be due to the influence of the Latin.

2. After verbs of fear or caution, the object of apprehension is expressed by a clause with *μή*, when it is feared that something will happen; with *μή οὐ*, when it is feared that something will not happen. After a primary tense, we have the subjunctive; after a secondary tense, the optative (historical subjunctive).

φοβοῦμαι μή ταῦτα ποιήσης (direct form, μή ποίησον ταῦτα).

I fear that you will do this.

ἐφοβούμην μή οὐ ταῦτα ποιήσεις (direct form, ποίησον ταῦτα).

I feared that you would not do this.

G. 218.
H. 887.

you not do this (i.e. I fear that you will do it); and Vereor; ut hōo faciās means I fear; may you do this (i.e. I fear that you will not do it).

REM. 2. — It is impossible to draw a line which separates indirect requests from final clauses. Many grammarians prefer to class clauses with *ut* or *nē* after verbs of fear or caution under the general head of final clauses (Rule 14).

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

11

Classifica-
tion of
Adjective
Clauses.

An adjective clause is one which, like an adjective, qualifies a noun. Relative clauses are adjective clauses, because the relative clause, like an adjective, qualifies the antecedent. But since relative clauses, in Latin, often express a purpose, result, cause, condition, or concession, they also modify the *verb* of the principal sentence, and hence may employ the moods in the same way as adverbial clauses.

12

Mood in
Relative
Clauses.

1. A relative clause, when simply adjective, takes its verb in the indicative.

Vir quem omnēs diligunt.

A man whom all love (= a man loved by all).

2. Relative clauses often express purpose, result, cause, or concession, or indicate a characteristic of the antecedent; in all these cases they require the subjunctive.

REM. — The relative clauses of cause and concession are characteristic clauses; characteristic clauses are also found after *expressions of existence and non-existence*; after *ūnus* and *sōlus*; after *dignus*, *aptus*, and *idoneus*; after comparatives; and where the antecedent is not otherwise defined.

Lēgātīōnem mittere quae (= ut ea) pācem roget.

To send an embassy to ask for peace (*purpose*).

Quis tam stultus est qui (= ut is) ignōret?

Who is so simple as not to know (*result*)?

A. 317. 2; 320.
a, b, c, d, e,
and f.
H. 497. 1; 503.
I., II. 1. 2. 3;
515. III.;
517.
G. 632, 633,
634.

11

Classification of Adjective Clauses.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

An adjective clause is one which, like an adjective, qualifies a noun. Relative clauses are adjective clauses, because the relative clause, like an adjective, qualifies the antecedent.

12

Mood in Relative Clauses.
G. 230.
H. 909, 2.

1. Relative clauses regularly require the indicative.

ἀνὴρ ὃν πάντες φιλοῦσιν.

A man whom all love.

G. 256, 237,
note, and 238.
H. 910, 911.

2. Relative clauses, not infrequently, as in Latin, express purpose, result, or cause; but even in such cases require the indicative.

πρεσβείαν πέμπειν ἣτις (or ἥ) ζητήσῃ εἰρήνην.

To send an embassy to ask peace. (Cf. 13, 2, Ex. 3.)

τίς οὕτως εὐήθης ὅστις (or rarely ὅς) ἀγνοεῖ;

Who is so simple as not to know?

LATIN.

**Clearchum ad colloquium vocāvit qui (= cum is)
māximē Græcōrum honorārī vidērētur.**

He summoned Clearchus to the council, since he seemed to
be the most honored of the Greeks (*cause*).

Sunt qui putant.

There are some who think.

Ūnus erat qui nōn addūci posset.

He was the only one who could not be induced.

Liber dignus est qui legātur.

The book is worth reading.

**Mālorēs arborēs caedēbant quam quās ferre miles
posset.**

They cut larger trees than a soldier could carry.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

13.

**Classifica-
tion of
Adverbial
Clauses.**

Adverbial clauses, clauses modifying verbs, may be
divided into six classes :

- | | |
|------------------|------------------|
| I. Final. | IV. Conditional. |
| II. Consecutive. | V. Concessive. |
| III. Casual. | VI. Temporal. |

14.

**Final
Clauses.
A. 327.
H. 497. II.
G. 545-547.**

1. Final clauses (*fīnis*, 'end,' *to the end that*) are such
as denote purpose. They are introduced by **ut**, **nē**, **quō**
(with comparatives), **quōminus** (after words and phrases
implying hindrance), and by relative words : they require,
in most cases, the subjunctive.

Pōntem rumpit nē trānseātis.

He breaks down the bridge that you may not cross.

Pōntem rūpit nē trānsirētis.

He broke down the bridge that you might not cross.

Κλέαρχον σύμβουλον παρεκάλεσε ὃς ἐδόκει
προτίμηθῆναι μάλιστα τῶν Ἑλλήνων.

He summoned Clearchus to the council, since he seemed to
be the most honored of the Greeks.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

13.

Classifica-
tion of
Adverbial
Clauses.

Those which modify verbs may be divided into six
classes.

- | | |
|------------------|------------------|
| I. Final. | IV. Conditional. |
| II. Consecutive. | V. Concessive. |
| III. Causal. | VI. Temporal. |

14.

Final
Clauses.
G. 216,
H. 88r.

1. Final clauses are introduced by *ἵνα*, *ὅπως*, *ὥς* (neg. *ἵνα μή*, *ὅπως μή*, *ὥς μή*): their verb is in the subjunctive, but may be in the optative after a secondary tense.

λῦει τὴν γέφυραν ὥς μὴ διαβῆτε.

He breaks down the bridge that you may not cross.

ἔλῦσε τὴν γέφυραν ὥς μὴ διαβαίητε.

He broke down the bridge that you might not cross.

L A T I N .

NOTE 1. — The relative, or relative adverb, when denoting purpose, may be resolved into **ut** or **nē** with a personal pronoun or a demonstrative word.

NOTE 2. — Verbs denoting an effort to hinder may take the infinitive.

Sōlōs qui Cimbrōs intrā finis suōs ingredi prohibuerint.

The only ones who kept the Cimbri from invading their territory.

A. 318.

A. 317. 1.
H. 497. II.
G. 345.

2. Various ways of expressing purpose : —

(1) **Ut, nē, quō, quōminūs** with the subjunctive.

Vēnērunt ut urbem caperent.

They came to take the city.

A. 317. 2.
H. 497. I.

(2) Relative clause with the subjunctive.

Vēnērunt quī urbem caperent.

A. 300.
H. 542. III.
Note 2.
G. 433.

(3) Accusative case of the gerund with **ad**. (Not found with transitive verbs.)

[Vēnērunt ad capiendum urbem.]

A. 300.

(4) Accusative case of the gerundive with **ad**.

Vēnērunt ad urbem capiendam.

A. 298. c.
H. 544. 2.
Note 2.
G. 429. 2.

(5) Genitive case of the gerund with **causā**.

Vēnērunt urbem capiendī causā.

A. 298. c.
H. 544. 2.
Note 2.

(6) Genitive case of the gerundive with **causā**.

Vēnērunt urbis capiendae causā.

A. 302.
H. 546.
G. 436.

(7) The supine in **-um** (with verbs of motion).

Vēnērunt urbem captum.

A. 293 b.
H. 549. 3.

(8) The future participle (not in Cicero).

Vēnērunt urbem captūrī.

2. Various ways of expressing purpose : —

G. 216.
H. 881.

- (1) *ἵνα, ὥς, ὅπως*, with subjunctive or optative.

ἔρχεται ἵνα τὴν πόλιν ἴδῃ.

He comes that he may see the city.

ἦλθεν ἵνα τὴν πόλιν ἴδοι.

He came that he might see the city.

G. 277. 3.
H. 969. c.

- (2) Future participle, often with *ὥς*.

ἦλθε αἰρήσων τὴν πόλιν.

He went to take the city.

G. 236.
H. 911.

- (3) Relative clause, with future indicative.

πρεσβείαν πέμπειν ἣτις ἐρεῖ.

To send an embassy to speak.

G. 262. 2.
H. 960.

- (4) Genitive case of infinitive, with neuter article *τοῦ*.

ἔφαγε τοῦ μὴ λείμου ἀποθανεῖν.

He ate in order not to die of hunger.

G. 217.
H. 885.

- (5) *ὅπως*, with future indicative after verbs of effort.

(Cf. Rule 10, 1, Rem. 1.)

φρόνιζε ὅπως πράξεις.

Consider how you may do it.

G. 265 and 266.
Note 5.
H. 951.

- (6) The infinitive alone or with *ὥστε*.

τὴν πόλιν φυλάττειν αὐτοῖς παρέδοσαν.

They handed over to them the city to guard it.

REM. — The negative in all final clauses is *μή*.

LATIN.

15.

Consecutive Clauses.

A. 319.
H. 500.
G. 553, 554.

1. Consecutive clauses are such as denote result. They are introduced by **ut** (neg. **ut nōn**) and **quīn** (after negative and interrogative expressions), and require the subjunctive.

Rēs tam horribilis erat, ut nēmo dormīret.

The affair was so dreadful that no one slept.

Nēmō est quīn putet.

There is no one but thinks.

Quis est quīn putet?

Who is there that does not think?

2. The relative clause denoting result (**quī = ut ego, ut tū, ut is**, etc.) is especially common in Latin.

Nēmō est tam senex quī sē annum nōn putet posse vivere.

Nobody is so old as not to think that he can live a year.

16.

Causal Clauses.

A. 321.
H. 516, 517.
G. 538-541.

Causal clauses express a cause or reason, and are introduced by **quod**, **quia**, **quoniam**, **quandō**, and **cum**. Of these, **cum** always takes the subjunctive, and **quandō** the indicative. **Quod**, **quia**, and **quoniam** take the indicative when the reason is given on the authority of the speaker or writer, the subjunctive when the reason is stated, not as a fact, but simply on another's (or subjectively on one's own) authority.

Quia mihi dictō audientēs esse nōnvultis, ego vōbiscum sequar.

Since you are not willing to obey me, I will follow you.

Cyrum insimulāvit quod contrā frātre[m] con- iūrāret.

He accused Cyrus (falsely) because (as he said) he was plotting against his brother.

15.

Consecutive
Clauses.
G. 266, 1.
H. 953.

1. Consecutive clauses are such as denote result. They are commonly introduced by ὥστε, and generally require the infinitive; negative, μή.

τὸ πρᾶγμα ἦν οὕτω δεινὸν ὥστε μηδένα κοι-
μηθῆναι.

The affair was so dreadful that one could not sleep.

G. 237.
H. 927.

2. If it is desired to indicate that the result has actually followed (*i.e.* if the fact as a *fact*, rather than as a *result*, is to be emphasized), the indicative is used.

τὸ πρᾶγμα οὕτω δεινὸν ἦν, ὥστε ὁ βασιλεὺς
οὐκ (not μή) ἐκοιμήθη.

The affair was so horrible that the king did not sleep.

16.

Causal
Clauses.

Causal clauses express a cause or reason, and are introduced by ὅτι, ὡς, *because, on the ground that*; ἐπεὶ, ἐπειδὴ, ὅτε, ὁπότε, *since*; and by other conjunctions of similar meaning.

G. 250, and
Note.
H. 925, and b.

They are regularly joined with the indicative; but when the cause is assigned on another's authority, the optative may be used after a secondary tense.

ἐπεὶ ἐμοὶ οὐ θέλετε πείσεσθαι, ἐγὼ σὺν ὑμῖν
ἔψομαι.

Since you do not choose to obey me, I will follow you.

Τισσαφέρνης διέβαλλεν Κῦρον ὡς τῷ ἀδελφῷ
ἐπιβουλεύει.

Tissaphernes accused Cyrus, on the ground that he was plotting against his brother.

LATIN.

NOTE.—In a case like this last example, *quod . . . confūrāret* is not only the cause, but also the subject-matter of the charge, and the subjunctive could be explained on the principle stated in Rule 8, Latin and Greek.

REM. 1. — Causal clauses introduced by the relative are common in Latin, and require the subjunctive (*qui* = *cum ego*, *cum tū*, *cum ille*, etc.). They are a variety of the characteristic clause.

**Ō fortunāte adulēscēns, qui (cum tū) Homērum tuas
virtūtis praeconiū invēneris!**

O fortunate youth, since you have obtained a Homer as the
herald of your valor!

REM. 2. — *Quia* with the subjunctive is rare.

17.

Of Condi-
tional Sen-
tences.

A. 304. B.
G. 590, 591.

A conditional sentence consists of two parts: the conditional clause or *if*-clause, called the Protasis; and the main clause or *then*-clause, called the Apodosis.

The conditional clause is introduced by the conjunctions *sī*, *nisi*, or *sī nōn*.

(Cf. Note on opposite page.)

18.

Classifica-
tion under
Four Forms.

A. 305.
H. 307.
G. 596.

Conditional sentences appear in four forms. They may first be conveniently divided into two classes: (a) Present and Past Conditions; and (b) Future Conditions. The former may be subdivided into Simple Conditions, and Conditions Contrary to Fact; and the latter into Future Conditions More Vivid, and Future Conditions Less Vivid.

NOTE. — In a case like this last example, *ὡς . . . ἐπιβουλευόμενος* is not only the alleged cause, but also the subject-matter of the charge, and the optative is accounted for by Rule 8.

REM. — Two other common ways of expressing a cause are: —

1. By a participle (cf. Rule 31).

λέγω τούτου ἕνεκα, βουλόμενος, κ. τ. λ.

This is the reason why I speak, because I wish, &c.

2. By *διὰ* with the infinitive preceded by the the neuter article *τό*.

διὰ τὸ ἀγαθὸς εἶναι, τοῦτο ἐποίει.

He used to do this, because he was brave.

17.
Of Conditional Sentences.

A conditional sentence consists of two parts: the conditional clause or *if*-clause, called the Protasis; and the main clause, called the Apodosis.

The conditional clause is introduced either by *εἰ* or *ἐάν* (= *εἰ ἂν*) also written *ἤν*, *ἄν*. *εἰ* may be joined with the indicative or optative; *ἐάν* is found only with the subjunctive. The negative of the Protasis is always *μή*, — that of the Apodosis, always *οὐ*.

NOTE. — The word Protasis (Greek *πρότασις*, from *προτίνω*, to stretch forth or put forward) means *clause which precedes and prepares the way for what follows*. Apodosis (Greek *ἀπόδοσις*, from *ἀποδίδωμι*, to correspond) means *following clause which concludes and completes the sentence*. It is very important to notice, although the Protasis comes first, and calls forth the Apodosis, as a question calls forth an answer, yet that the Apodosis is always the main clause.

18.
Classification under Four Forms.
G. 220.
H. 891.

Conditional sentences appear in four forms. They may first be conveniently divided into two classes: (a) Present and Past Conditions; and (b) Future Conditions. The former may be subdivided into Simple Conditions, and Conditions Contrary to Fact; and the latter into Future Conditions More Vivid, and Future Conditions Less Vivid.

19.

**First Form:
Simple
Condition.**
A. 306.
H. 308.

I. Simple present and past conditions.

Nothing implied as to fulfilment.

REM. — For the whole subject of conditions, see G. 596 fol. As the classification adopted is a different one, no references to G. are given under the separate heads.

Indicative (any tense) in the Protasis ;

Indicative (any tense) in the Apodosis.

Sī adest, bene est.

If he is present, it is well.

Sī ārae sunt, Dī quoque sunt.

If there are altars, there are also Gods.

Sī tonuit, fulgurāvit quoque.

If it thundered, it also lightened.

REM. 1. — Observe that in conditional sentences of the first class, the conditional *form* is often rather accidental than essential. Nearly the same thought would sometimes be expressed, in case another conjunction — e.g. *because, since, as sure as* — were substituted for *if*.

20.

**Second
Form:
Condition
contrary
to Fact.**
A. 308.
H. 310.

II. Supposition contrary to fact.

Non-fulfilment implied.

Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Protasis ;

Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Apodosis.

Sī adesset, bene esset.

If he were present, it were well.

Sī quid peccārēs, dolērēs.

If you were committing any sin, you would suffer (for it).

Sī tonuisset, fulgurāisset.

If it had thundered, it would have lightened.

19.

First Form:
Simple
Condition.
G. 221.
H. 893.

- I. Simple present and past conditions.
Nothing implied as to fulfilment
Indicative (any tense) in the Protasis;
Indicative (any tense) in the Apodosis.

εἰ πάρεστι, καλῶς ἔχει.

If he is present, it is well.

εἰ βωμοί εἰσιν, καὶ θεοί εἰσιν.

If there are altars, there are also Gods.

εἰ ἐβρόντησε, καὶ ἤστραψεν.

If it thundered, it also lightened.

REM. 1. — Observe that in conditional sentences of the first class (which are probably more common in Greek than in Latin) the conditional *form* is often rather accidental than otherwise. Nearly the same thought would sometimes be expressed by the substitution for *if* of some other conjunction; e.g. *because, since, as sure as*.

20.

Second
Form:
Condition
contrary
to Fact.
G. 222.
H. 895.

- II. Supposition contrary to fact.
Non-fulfilment implied.
Past tense of the Indicative in Protasis;
Past tense of the Indicative with ἄν in Apodosis.

εἰ παρῆν, καλῶς ἄν εἶχεν.

If he were present, it were well.

εἴ τι ἡμάρτανες, ἡλγεις ἄν.

If you were committing any sin, you would suffer (for it).

εἰ ἐβρόντησεν, ἤστραψεν ἄν.

If it had thundered, it would have lightened.

REM. 1. — When the imperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the present: *e.g.* **si adesset** (contrary reality, **nōn adest**); **bene esset** (contrary reality, **nōn bene est**). When the pluperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the historical perfect, or by the imperfect: *e.g.* **si potuisset** (contrary reality, **nōn poterat**, or **nōn potuit**); **vēnisset** (contrary reality **nōn vēnit**).

A. 308. b.
H. 511. 1.

REM. 2. — The indicative, instead of the subjunctive, in the apodosis, signifies that a thing was certain, or was intended, or ought to be.

In amplexūs fillae ruēbat, nisi lictōrēs obstitissent.

He would certainly have rushed into his daughter's embrace,
had not the lictors prevented.

A. 308. c.
H. 511. 2.

REM. 3. — Verbs and expressions denoting necessity, propriety, possibility, or duty, when used in the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact are regularly put in the indicative.

Id facere potuit, si voluisset.

He could have done it, if he had wished.

21

Third Form:
Future Con-
dition more
Vivid.
A. 307. 1.
[H. 508.]

III. A distinct supposition of a future case.

Future Indicative (or, for completed action, Future Perfect Indicative) in Protasis;

Future Indicative in Apodosis.

Si aderit, bene erit.

If he be (shall be) present, it will be well.

Si quid peccāveris, dolēbis.

If you shall have committed any sin, you will suffer (for it).

REM. — This variety of condition, it will be observed, shows the same use of the moods (indicative in both clauses) as the first form.

NOTE. — In H. Future Conditions are divided into *possible* and *impossible* conditions.

REM. 1. — When the imperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the present or imperfect: e.g. εἰ παρῆν (contrary reality, οὐ πάρεστι); καλῶς ἂν εἶχεν (contrary reality, οὐκ εἶχε καλῶς). When the aorist is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the aorist: e.g. εἰ ἠδυνήθη (contrary reality, οὐκ ἠδυνήθη); ἦλθεν ἂν (contrary reality, οὐκ ἦλθεν).

G. M. 420
and 423.

REM. 2. — ἂν is sometimes not found in the Apodosis of a conditional sentence of the second form, with impersonal verbs and expressions denoting *necessity, propriety, &c.* (e.g. ἴδαι, ἔχρην, χρῆν, δίκαιον ἦν, &c., with the infinitive), if the chief force of the apodosis falls on the infinitive. If, however, the chief force falls on the necessity or propriety of the act, rather than on the act itself, ἂν is used with the main verb.

21

Third Form:
Future Con-
dition more
Vivid.
G. 223.
[H. 898.]

III. A distinct supposition of a future case.
Subjunctive with εἰάν (ἦν, ᾶν) in Protasis;
Future Indicative, or Imperative, or some other expression implying futurity, in Apodosis.

εἰάν παρῆ, καλῶς ἔξει.

If he be (shall be) present, it will be well.

εἰάν τι ἁμάρτης, ἀλγήσεις.

If you (shall) commit any sin, you will suffer (for it).

REM. 1. — The subjunctive with εἰάν in the Protasis often gives place, for greater vividness, to the future indicative with εἰ.

εἰ πάρεσται, καλῶς ἔξει.

G. M. 87.

REM. 2. — The difference between the present and the aorist is the usual one, the present denoting an action *going on*, and the aorist simply the *occurrence*.

22

Fourth
Form:
Future Con-
dition less
Vivid.
A. 307. a.
[H. 509.]

IV. A supposition referring to the future, but expressed less vividly.

Present Subjunctive (Perfect Subjunctive for completed action) in Protasis ;

Present Subjunctive in Apodosis.

Sī adsit, bene sit.

If he should be present, it would be well.

Sī quid peccāveris, doleās.

If you should commit (have committed) any fault, you would suffer (for it).

23.

Mixed
Forms.
A. 311. d.
H. 511.

Mixed forms are much less common in Latin than in Greek. Yet we find examples like the following : —

Diēs dēficiet (3), sī velim (4) causam dīcere.

Day would (will) fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause.

24.

Condition
Implied.
A. 310.

The condition is sometimes involved in a participle, or in some other word, and sometimes is merely implied.

**Nōn potestis, omnia voluptāte dīrigentēs, vir-
tūtem retinēre.**

You cannot, if you arrange everything according to pleasure, retain your manhood.

REM. — The Subjunctive of Modesty and the Potential Subjunctive (see 1) are conclusions with the condition merely implied.

22.

Fourth
Form:
Future Con-
dition less
Vivid.
G. 224.
[H. 900.]

IV. A supposition referring to the future, but expressed less vividly.

Optative in the Protasis ;

Optative with $\alpha\tilde{\nu}$ in the Apodosis.

$\epsilon\tilde{\iota}$ παρείη, καλῶς $\alpha\tilde{\nu}$ ἔχοι.

If he were present, it would be well.

$\epsilon\tilde{\iota}$ τι ἁμαρτάνοις, ἀλγοίης $\alpha\tilde{\nu}$.

If you should commit any fault, you would suffer for it.

REM. — In H. Future Conditions are divided into Future Supposition *with more probability* and Future Supposition *with less probability*.

23.

Mixed
Forms.
G. 227.
H. 901, 2.

To express various shades of meaning, the third and fourth forms are sometimes blended, — the Protasis taking one, the Apodosis the other.

$\epsilon\tilde{\alpha}\nu$ παρῇ (3), καλῶς $\alpha\tilde{\nu}$ ἔχοι (4).

If he shall be present, it would be well.

$\epsilon\tilde{\iota}$ παρείη (4), καλῶς ἔξει (3).

24.

Condition
Implied.
G. 226.
H. 902, 903.

The condition is frequently involved in a participle, or is simply implied.

$$\epsilon\tilde{\chi}\omega\nu = \begin{cases} \epsilon\tilde{\iota} \text{ τι } \epsilon\tilde{\chi}\epsilon\iota\varsigma. \\ \epsilon\tilde{\alpha}\nu \text{ τι } \epsilon\tilde{\chi}\eta\varsigma. \\ \epsilon\tilde{\iota} \text{ τι } \epsilon\tilde{\chi}\omicron\iota\varsigma. \\ \epsilon\tilde{\iota} \text{ τι } \epsilon\tilde{\iota}\chi\epsilon\varsigma. \end{cases}$$

$\sigma\chi\acute{\omega}\nu = \epsilon\tilde{\iota} \text{ τι } \epsilon\tilde{\sigma}\chi\epsilon\varsigma.$

REM. — The Potential Optative (see 1) is a conclusion with the condition merely implied.

L A T I N .

25.

**General or
Indefinite
Conditions.**

Conditional sentences in Latin, as in Greek, may contain the statement of a general truth, or may imply repeated action. General Conditions are, however, as a rule, not distinguished from Particular Conditions in form.

25.

General or
Indefinite
Conditions.

General Conditions occur in all four classes; but only Present and Past General Conditions have a formula in any respect different from that of Particular Conditions.

Compare the examples, —

- A. { $\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\nu$ τι λάβῃ, δώσει.
If he receives anything, he will give it.
 $\epsilon\acute{\imath}$ τι λάβοι, δοίη ἄν.
If he should receive anything, he would give it.

with the following: —

- B. { $\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\nu$ τι λάβῃ, δίδωσι.
If he receives anything, he (uniformly) gives it.
 $\epsilon\acute{\imath}$ τι λάβοι, ἐδίδου.
If he received anything, he (uniformly) gave it.

The first pair are Particular, the second, General Conditions. The first refer to a supposed single case; the second imply repeated action, or contain a general truth. In the first, $\epsilon\acute{\imath}$ or $\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\nu$ really means "if in a particular instance"; in the second, "whenever."

It is further to be observed, in the second pair of examples, that: —

1. The mood of the Protasis is determined, not by considering the nature of the condition (whether it is taken for granted, probable, or possible), but by the tense of the Apodosis, according to the principle of the sequence of moods (Rule 5).

2. The verb of the Apodosis is in the indicative, and is a form expressing repeated action.

3. The Protases in both pairs of examples are identical; the verbs of the Apodosis, regularly in the indicative, and expressing repeated action, are what mark the second pair of conditions as general.

L A T I N .

26.

Use of Moods
in General
Conditional
Sentences.

A. 309.
H. 508. 5.

When general conditions are distinguished from particular, they require the Indicative, except with the indefinite second person singular. In writers after Cicero, however, the Subjunctive is used, as in Greek.

27.

Hypothetical
(or Conditional) Rela-
tive Sen-
tences.

A. 316.
H. 507. 2.

Conditional relative sentences, or sentences in which the relative may be resolved into *sī* with a personal or demonstrative or indefinite pronoun, are found in Latin. They require, however, no extended illustration.

26.

Use of Moods
in General
Conditional
Sentences.
G. 225.
H. 894.

General conditions require : —

1. *For present time, —*

Subjunctive with *ἐάν* in Protasis ;
Present indicative in Apodosis.

2. *For past time, —*

Optative with *εἰ* in Protasis ;
Imperfect indicative in Apodosis.

Cf., for examples, Rule 27, B.

REM. — An important application of the principles just stated will be seen in the explanation of the employment of moods in temporal clauses. (Cf. Rule 29, 2, p. 48.)

27.

Hypothetical
(or Conditional) Rela-
tive Sen-
tences.

Conditional relative sentences are relative sentences implying a condition. The conditions involved may be particular or general, and differ in no respect from the cases already explained, but are sufficiently illustrated by the following examples : —

A. — *Particular Conditions.*

1. ἃ μὴ οἶδα, οὐδὲ οἶμαι εἰδέναι =
εἴ τινα μὴ οἶδα, οὐδὲ οἶμαι εἰδέναι.

What I do not know (if I do not know a thing) I do not think I know.

2. οὐκ ἂν ἐπεχειροῦμεν πράττειν ἃ μὴ ἠπιστάμεθα =

εἴ τινα μὴ ἠπιστάμεθα, οὐκ ἂν ἐπεχειροῦμεν πράττειν.

We would not undertake to do what we did not understand.

3. ὃ ἂν βούληται, δώσω =
ἐάν τι βούληται, δώσω.

I will give him (once) whatever he may wish.

CLASSIFICATION OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

A. — *Particular Suppositions.*

I. PRESENT AND PAST.

1. Simple suppositions — nothing implied as to fulfilment. Present and past tenses of the indicative.

2. Supposition contrary to fact — non-fulfilment implied. Past tenses of the subjunctive; imperfect for present time, pluperfect for past time.

II. FUTURE.

1. Supposition expressed vividly (by *shall* or *will*). Future indicative (future perfect in the Protasis to express completed action).

2. Supposition expressed less vividly (by *should* or *would*). Present subjunctive (perfect in the protasis, if a completed action is to be expressed).

B. — *General Suppositions.*

Not usually distinguished from particular suppositions. When distinguished, take the indicative, except in the indefinite second person singular and in late writers.

4. ὃ τι βούλοιτο, δοίην ἄν =
εἴ τι βούλοιτο, δοίην ἄν.

I would give him (once) whatever he might wish.

B. — General Conditions.

1. ὃ ἂν βούληται, δίδωμι =
εἰάν τι βούληται, δίδωμι.

I (uniformly) give him whatever he wants.

2. ὃ τι βούλοιτο, ἐδίδουν =
εἴ τι βούλοιτο, ἐδίδουν.

I (uniformly) gave him whatever he wanted.

CLASSIFICATION OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

A. — Particular Suppositions.

I. PRESENT AND PAST.

1. Simple supposition — nothing implied as to fulfilment.

Protasis: Present or past tense of indicative.

Apodosis: Present or past tense of indicative.

2. Supposition contrary to fact — non-fulfilment implied.

Protasis: Past tense of indicative
{ impf. for present time.
aor. impf. or plupf. for past time.

Apodosis: Past tense of indicative
with εἰ { impf. for present time.
aor. impf. or plupf. for past time.

II. FUTURE.

1. Expressed vividly (by *shall* or *will*).

Protasis: Subjunctive with εἰ.

Apodosis: Future indicative.

2. Expressed less vividly (by *should* or *would*).

Protasis: Optative with εἰ.

Apodosis: Optative with εἰ.

B. — General Suppositions.

Protasis: εἰ with the subjunctive after a present tense.

εἰ with the optative after a past tense.

Apodosis: Present or past tense of the indicative.

28.

**Concessive
Clauses.**

A. 313.
H. 515.
G. 605-611.

V. Concessive clauses are introduced by **quamquam**, **quamvis**, **licet**, **ut**, **cum** (*although*). Of these conjunctions, the first is regularly joined with the indicative, the others with the subjunctive.

REM. — In concessive clauses the indicative is used if a *fact* is conceded, otherwise the subjunctive.

Quamquam ad multam noctem pugnabant, tamen hostes non fugaverunt.

Although they fought till late at night, they did not put the enemy to flight.

Licet omnes in me terrores periculaque impendeant, tamen id non faciam.

Though all terrors and perils may menace me, I will not do it.

In the first example an admitted fact is conceded; in the second, the concession is something purely imaginary.

REM. 2. — Concession is also expressed by **etsi**, **etiamsi**, and **tamenetsi**. Concessive clauses of this kind correspond with the four classes of conditional clauses (see 18). For **cum** concessive, see 29, 2, Rem.

REM. 3. — Concession is often expressed by a participle, or by an ablative absolute.

29.

**Temporal
Clauses.**

A. 324.
H. 518.
G. 563.

VI. Temporal clauses are introduced by the following conjunctions: —

1. **ut**, **ubi**, } *when, postquam, after that*, with the indicative.

ubi primum, **simul ac**, } *as soon as, quotiēs, as often as*, with the indicative.

REM. — These conjunctions are commonly used with the perfect indicative or the historical present.

28.

Concessive
Clauses.

V. Concessive clauses are introduced by *εἰ καὶ*, *ἐὰν καί*, *even if*; and *καὶ εἰ*, *καὶ ἂν* (*καὶ ἐάν*), *although*. They show the same uses of moods as the various forms of the conditional sentences.

REM. — Concession is often expressed by the participle, with which *καίως* is sometimes used.

29.

Temporal
Clauses.
H. 1055.

VI. 1. Temporal clauses are introduced by the following conjunctions : —

ὅτε, *ὁπότε*, *ἡνίκα*, *ὥς*, — *when*.

ἐπεὶ, *ἐπειδὴ*, — *after, when*.

πρίν, — *before*.

ἕως, *ἕστε*, *ἐν ᾧ*, — *as long as, until, whilst*.

quam diū, *as long as*, with the indicative.

A. 325, 326.
H. 521.
G. 580, fol.

2. **cum**, *when*, with the indicative or subjunctive.

REM. — **Cum** takes the indicative when it expresses time; *i.e.* when the **cum** clause *dates* the action of the main clause. When it does not so much *date* as *describe the circumstances* under which the action of the main clause takes place, it takes the subjunctive. **Cum** in narration is usually followed by the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive; in the comparatively few cases in which the indicative is used, the idea of *time* is prominent, being frequently made especially so by the expressions **tum . . . cum**, **cum primum**, etc. In causal and concessive clauses with **cum**, the meaning *since* or *although* is given by the context, as when the ablative absolute expresses cause or concession. When **cum** means *whenever*, it takes the indicative, being in reality a general condition. When the clauses are inverted, so that the **cum** clause is really the main clause, **cum** takes the indicative.

A. 327.
H. 520.
G. 576, fol.

3. **antequam**, } *before that, before*, with the indicative
priusquam, }
or subjunctive.

A. 328.
H. 519.
G. 573, fol.

dum, }
4. **dōnec**, } *while, until*, with indicative or subjunctive.
quoad, }

REM. 1. — With **antequam** and **priusquam**, **dum**, **dōnec**, and **quoad**, the indicative is used when they introduce an independent fact, the subjunctive when the temporal clause merely qualifies the main clause.

REM. 2. — **Antequam** and **priusquam** take the present or future perfect when they refer to future time, rarely the present subjunctive.

REM. 3. — **Dum** meaning *while* takes the present indicative (historical present) to indicate continued action in past time, if that time is not contrasted with any other. **Dum** meaning *as long as* is used with the imperfect or perfect indicative. **Dum** denoting purpose, doubt, or futurity takes the subjunctive.

*Use of Moods
in Temporal
Clauses.*

G. 232, 239,

240.

H. 913, 921,

924.

2. All these conjunctions (not including $\pi\rho\acute{\omega}$) are followed by the indicative when they denote a definite point of time ; when they denote some time (not fixed or known in the future), or refer to a number of occasions, they introduce semi-conditional clauses, and furnish, in the moods employed, a precise parallel to them.

L A T I N .

EXAMPLES.

1. **Pompēius ut equitātum suum pulsum vīdit, acīē excessit** (B. C. iii. 94).

When Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the field (of battle).

2. **Cum Caesar in Galliā esset, litterae ad eum referēbantur** (B. G. ii. 1).

When Caesar was in Gaul, letters were brought to him.

Quem quidem cum ex urbe pellēbam, hōc prōvidēbam animō (Cic. Cat. iii. 7).

When I was trying to force him from the city, I was looking forward to this.

Tum cum in Asiā rēs magnās permultī amiserant, scīmus Rōmae solūtiōne impedītā fidem concidisse.

At that time when a great many people had lost large fortunes in Asia, we know that because payments were made difficult, credit fell at Rome (Cic. Man. 7).

REM. — In the first example under 2 the *cum* clause defines the circumstances without special regard to *time*; in the second and third time is the most prominent idea; in the third the *tum* makes it especially clear that this is the case.

3. **Neque ante dīmīsit eum quam fidem dedit adulēscēns** (Livy xxxix. 10).

She did not let the young man go till he gave a pledge.

Antequam hominēs nefāriī dē meō adventū audīre potuissent, in Macedoniam per-rēxī (Cic. Planc. 41).

Before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia.

G R E E K .

The following is the formula : —

After a primary tense, *ἄν* is annexed to the conjunction, generally forming one word with it, and the verb of the temporal clause is in the subjunctive. After a secondary tense, the verb of the temporal clause is in the optative, without *ἄν*.

ταῦτα ἐποίουν μέχρι σκότος ἐγένετο.

They did this until darkness came on (definite time).

ὅταν ἅπαντα ἀκούσης, κρίνων.

When you (shall) have heard all, judge.

ἐπειδὴ δέ τι ἐμφάγοιεν, ἀνίσταντο.

After they had eaten something, they would rise up.

*ὅποτε ὥρᾳ εἴη ἀρίστου, ἀνέμενεν αὐτοὺς ἔστε
ἐμφάγοιεν.*

Whenever it was time for breakfast, he used to wait for them until they ate something.

REM. — *πρίν*, besides the constructions mentioned above, may take the infinitive in any tense, and must take the infinitive in certain cases.

REM.—In the first example two facts are stated; in the second the act of the *antequam* clause is ideal or imaginary, merely defining the main clause.

Dum haec geruntur, hostēs vērunt.

While this was going on, the enemy came.

Expectās fōrtasse dum dicat (Tusc. ii. 7).

You are waiting perhaps for him to say.

REM.—In the first example two facts are stated; in the second the act of the *dum* clause is ideal or imaginary, and may never have taken place.

30.

Infinitive.
A. 270. and
296.
H. 538. and
542.
G. 426.

The infinitive and the gerund, taken together, make up all the cases of a verbal noun (cf. English verbal nouns in *-ing*); *e.g.*—

Nom. Errāre hūmānum est.

To err is human.

Gen. Errandī cupidus est homō.

Man is desirous of sinning.

Dat. Errandō aptus est homō.

Man is inclined to sinning.

**Acc. { Errāre homō amat.
Ad errandum homō aptus est.**

Man is inclined to sinning.

Abl. Errandō homō miser fit.

By sinning man becomes wretched.

31

Participle.
A. 292.
H. 549.
G. 667.

The participle, in Latin, may be the equivalent of the adjective clause, and of the adverbial clause in most of its varieties; *e.g.*—

Of an Adjective Clause:—

Epistolam sibi commissam = (quae commissā erat) dētulit.

He delivered the letter which had been intrusted to him.

30.

Infinitive.
G. 264.
H. 959.

The infinitive joined with the neuter article may be used in all the cases ; *e.g.* —

Nom. τὸ ἁμαρτάνειν.
(The act of) sinning.

Gen. τοῦ ἁμαρτάνειν.
Of sinning.

Dat. τῷ ἁμαρτάνειν.
To or for sinning.

Acc. (τὸ) ἁμαρτάνειν.
(The act of) sinning.

31

Participle.
G. 277.
H. 968-969.

The participle, in Greek, is constantly employed as the equivalent of the adjective clause, and of the adverbial clause in all its varieties ; *e.g.* —

Of an Adjective Clause : —

ἔπεδωκε τὴν ἑαυτῷ ἐπιτετραμμένην ἐπιστολήν.

He delivered the letter which had been intrusted to him.

Of Adverbial Clauses :—

Final.

Alexander ad Iovem Ammōnem pergit, cōsultūrus (— ut cōsulat) dē orīgine suā.

Alexander goes to Jupiter Ammon to consult (the oracle) about his origin.

Causal.

Nihil affirmō mihi ipse diffidēns (= quia diffidō).

I affirm nothing, because I distrust myself.

Conditional.

Ad cēnam vocātus (= sī vocātus erō) ibō.

I shall go to supper, if I am invited.

Concessive.

Nōn statim poenīs adficiuntur, cotidiē dēlinquentēs (= cum dēlinquant).

They are not at once punished, although daily at fault.

Temporal.

Hōs ego dīgrediēns lacrimīs adfābar obortīs (dīgrediēns = cum dīgrederer).

As I went away, I addressed them with flowing tears.

Of Adverbial Clauses : —

Final.

Ἀλέξανδρος εἰς Ἀμμωνος ἑδρὰν ἔρχεται ἐπε-
ρησόμενος περὶ τῆς αὐτοῦ γενέσεως.

Alexander goes to Jupiter Ammon to consult (the oracle)
about his origin.

Causal.

οὐδὲν λέγω ἑμαυτῷ ἀπιστῶν.

I affirm nothing, because I distrust myself.

Conditional.

εἰ ἔχω,	} = ἔχων τι	δίδωμι.
εἰ εἶχον,		ἐδίδων ἄν.
εἰ ἔσχον,		ἔδωκα ἄν.
εἰ ἂν ἔχω,		δώσω.
εἰ ἂν σχῶ,		δώσω.
εἰ ἔχοιμι,		δίδοίην ἄν.
εἰ σχοίην,		δοίην ἄν.

Concessive.

καίπερ ἁμαρτάνοντες καθ' ἐκάστην, οὐκ αὐτίκα
δίκην διδόασιν.

They are not at once punished, though daily at fault.

REM. — The concessive participle is commonly accompanied by καί-
περ.

Temporal.

All participles denote this relation, and the Greek dis-
tinguishes very accurately by the use of the present, perfect
or aorist, and future participle, whether the action denoted
by the participle is represented as occurring simultaneously
with, previous to, or subsequent to, that of the principal
verb of the sentence.

ταῦτα ἀκούσας ἀπήλαυνεν.

When he had heard this, he rode away.

L A T I N .

Temporal.

ταῦτα εἰπὼν ἐπαύσατο (λέγων).

When he had said this, he ceased (speaking).

NOTE. — The aorist participle in Greek may very fitly be called a preliminary participle. The Greek uses the tense of the participle with great accuracy, often employing the aorist when we, in English, should employ a present participle. *E.g.* —

English. Coming up, he asked his name.

Greek. προσελθὼν ἤρατο τὸ ὄνομα αὐτοῦ.

32.

The various uses of the participle above enumerated all come under the head of circumstantial; *i.e.* the participle adds a circumstance, more or less important, modifying the principal verb or predicate of the sentence. If this circumstance is essential to the thought, and cannot be omitted without taking away the leading idea from the sentence, the participle is said to be supplementary.

The supplementary participle is used most frequently after the following verbs: —

1. Verbs of judging, feeling, knowing, etc., as the equivalent of a substantive clause. (Cf. Rule 7, 4.)

2. Verbs of beginning, continuing, enduring, ceasing, etc.

NOTE. — The supplementary participle is especially common with λανθάνω, παύομαι, τυγχάνω, φθάνω.

ἐλάθομεν ἀφ᾽ ἡμεῶν.

We arrived without knowing it.

ἐπαύσατο λέγων.

He ceased speaking.

ἔτυχε παρών.

He happened to be present.

φθάνουσιν τοὺς πολεμίους γινόμενοι ἐπὶ τῇ ἄκρῃ.

They anticipate the enemy in gaining the height.

